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SEEDS OF PROGRESS

STORIES OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

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PREFACE

Probably three-quarters of the world's inhabitants are to some extent underfed. No less than half of them exist on a starvation diet. Two-thirds of the world's people die before their 30th birthday. An equal number of our fellowmen are illiterate and poverty-stricken. Not only the products of modern industry, but the normal decencies of civilized life are utterly beyond their reach. Year by year, the gap has grown wider between these citizens of economically less-developed countries and the more fortunate nations of the world.

Mankind has ceased to accept these conditions. Through the dedicated efforts of Governments and their peoples, a world is remaking itself. " Technical Assistance " has taken on an important and fascinating role in helping to bring this about. " Know-how " is constantly being exported from one country to plant the SEEDS OF PROGRESS in another.

In 1950 the United Nations Economic and Social Council created the *Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance** as a means of placing on a completely international basis the sharing of skills and knowledge. In the past five years, many hundreds of men and women have gone out from their homes to serve the Programme as international civil servants. Regardless of their origin and varied interests, they have worked with a common ideal.

This booklet offers a very small, but typical, selection of their experiences. It takes us amongst the people of many countries. We share their hopes and problems from the plateaux of

* Participating: the United Nations, the International Labour Org. (ILO), the Food and Agriculture Org. (FAO), the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Org. (UNESCO), the International Civil Aviation Org. (ICAO), the World Health Org. (WHO), the International Telecommunications Union (ITU) and the World Meteorological Org. (WMO).

A farmer in the Andean Highlands of Bolivia tills his land
In isolation, a pattern unchanged through the generations . . .

Bolivia to the rice paddies of the Philippines. These stories tell of the work of experts who have themselves come from different lands. They reflect the diverse nature of technical assistance. Some experts are working with Governments, some with modern mechanics in technical institutes, and yet others directly with the people in the villages. There is, however, an important common denominator—each expert is helping a country to help itself, and in so doing, is dedicating his knowledge and professional skill to the service of mankind.

WATER FOR SANTA APOLONIA

There is a world apart in Guatemala—as in many of her neighbour countries—the world of the indigenous Indian, with his language, his culture and his own economic structure. He is far more backward than the " creole " population, and far removed from all the benefits which the urban centres can enjoy. Indigenous Indians form almost one-third of Guatemala's population and they live exclusively on their poor returns from the soil and a little handicraft work.

The typical Indian is almost completely illiterate. He usually speaks no Spanish, but one of eighteen tribal languages. He is deeply rooted in ancestral customs, traditions and way of life. The violent imposition of colonization and the exploitation of his people for four centuries have made him look with suspicion on any interference, however well meant, in his affairs. Centuries-old isolation has cut the Indian off from progress. He still tills the land very much as his ancestors did before the Spaniards came. He uses a wooden plough. His handicrafts are primitive, but among the most beautiful in colour and design to be found anywhere. He is perpetually in financial straits.

During the harvesting season he may cross the mountains to the coast in search of work. There, in the swamps, he falls an easy prey to tropical diseases and to " suppliers " of labour. Debts, alcohol, bootlegging, an anarchial labour market where the protection of the worker is practically unknown—these are the things that the Guatemalan authorities are seeking to alter. In 1952 the Government requested technical assistance from the International Labour Organization as a first step in making this change. From France came Robert Dillon, bringing with him the fruits of long experience among rural workers in Argentina, Paraguay, Libya, Kenya and other countries.

Dillon saw that the best chance of success lay in seeking to raise the productivity of the Indians in the regions in which they live, thus gradually lessening the need for migration and putting them in a better position to discuss terms of employment should they still decide to go down to the coast.

The Government Institute for Developing Productivity gave Dillon its full support in the pioneering work to be done. Together with FAO specialists and a Guatemalan soil engineer, he began laying out plans to start work in the largest possible number of indigenous villages. The group spent almost a year travelling back and forth over the country, getting acquainted with the people and their problems, and organizing their centres of operation. The first one to be set up was in Santa Apolonia.

The pueblo of Santa Apolonia is a tiny speck on the map of Guatemala, but when you get there, full of ideas for raising the standard of living of its people, you find the little place has problems that loom as big as the volcanic mountains around it. Robert Dillon had been sent under the Expanded Programme of the United Nations. No one in the pueblo had ever heard of it. If he was to win their confidence he would have to do it the hard way. " Why do you want to help us? " was the first question and the first obstacle, for the answer had to be in the practical terms that they understood and trusted.

Dillon's first suggestion to the town was that they construct a dam whose waters would irrigate all of the lands of the neighbourhood. The opposition immediately formed! " Water was created to flow in riverbeds, and not to be stopped by dams," was the view of the Chief of the pueblo. When you have held this view all your life and you are 82 years old, it is difficult to change your mind. " Block the river and form swamps? " Never had such a thing been heard in Apolonia. The day the foreigner turned up with his proposal for the dam, the older men of the village, led by the Chief, opposed the idea with all their might. They would have nothing to do with it. They might not be able to prevent others from

helping the stranger with his foolish ideas, but they would disinherit any of their sons who did.

Looking around for allies, Dillon spotted Francisco Chonay. Francisco was the most forward-looking man in Santa Apolonia. In his home was the only sewing machine in the pueblo. He had the walls of his house whitewashed each year. But his maize was eaten by rats and the " tortuguilla " devoured his carrot and potato crops just as they did with the other paesanos.

" Try hanging the maize in clusters out of reach of the rats," said Dillon. It worked. " And as for the tortuguilla, try spraying some insecticide." This strange powder had never been heard of before but, hardly had the plants been dusted with it than the earth turned green, as if covered with fallen leaves, and Chonay did not have to look twice to know that they were dead tortuguillas.

One success led to others. The dam that Dillon proposed? The paesanos built it themselves. Dillon drew the plans and the paesanos worked from daybreak to sunset without pay to carry them out under his supervision. When the dam was completed, there was water for anyone who asked for it.

There were desertions from the opposing camp. One of the men, defying the silent disapproval of the others, asked for water for his lands, but he feared that these were too far from the source. He was assured that an irrigation ditch would be dug to carry the water to him, and when he nearly flooded his field with the new-found water, Dillon taught him to regulate the flow. The Chief of the pueblo, trotting on his horse through his arid estate, cast furtive glances at the dam, the canals and the green plantations, but still would have none of the water. Then, suddenly, one day he announced his decision to divide his lands among his sons and to let them work them as they pleased. He was happy that he still had his pride—and the lands had the water.

That is the first part of the story of how water—and the International Labour Organization—came to Santa Apolonia. The town has not been the same since. It is evident that something has changed. In a few months, people have learned to save their corn from the rats, to smoke their crops against the tortuguilla, to irrigate their land. The people live more happily, more prosperously. It cannot be said that misery has been banished, but things are better than before. The paesanos harvest 80 per cent more wheat. There are more potatoes, more carrots to be sold on Sunday at the village market—and rather more coins in the pocket on the way home.

The dam in Santa Apolonia was only a first step. Next, vaccination of domestic animals was undertaken; and the distribution of medicines to the sick; the distribution of milk

Guatemalan authorities are making weaving looms available at rural Centres such as that in Santa Apolonia. This woman uses the traditional method of weaving without a loom, attaching one end of her work to her belt, the other to a corner of her house.

to children (UNICEF contributed 2,190,000 units of milk). In San Marcos a sheep-breeding course is to be opened. A UN expert will direct a training centre for carpet makers. An FAO expert has been asked for to show villagers how to treat fruit trees.

As work progressed in the field, more Government officials became interested in its potentialities. By the middle of 1954, the Institute for the Development of Productivity was planning a special Department to take charge of economic improvement amongst the Indian population. By early 1955, the Department was a reality. Dillon and his colleagues had already divided the Indian territory into 48 zones, and now, the Department was able to provide an inspector to follow up on the work in 16 of these zones, and to appoint nine special agents. The Chief of this Department is the Guatemalan soil engineer who had travelled and worked with Dillon as his national counterpart. He is looking forward to yet greater activity throughout 1956.

By resolving little by little the problems of each region, the Government and the experts hope to tackle the far-reaching task of improving living and working conditions amongst thousands of indigenous Guatemalans. They plan to introduce labour standards in keeping with modern trends of social legislation, systems of work which would permit increased production and health standards that may even banish some existing diseases, or at least reduce their effects. In short, they hope to show the Chief of Santa Apolonia or his successors that water is not just meant to flow downstream.

ENEMIES FROM THE SKY

From the beginning of history, the appearance of a cloud of locusts has brought consternation to the inhabitants of vast areas of Africa and Asia. Coming seemingly from nowhere, uncounted myriads of the invaders ravage every green leaf in a matter of hours or even minutes. When they move on to continue their work of destruction, the swarm leave behind them a trail of hunger and misery. Their depredations have been most severe in semi-arid regions where agriculture is always carried on under difficulties and where the reduction or annihilation of crops means acute suffering and often famine for the inhabitants.

In recent years, the threat of most species of locust has been brought under control by mankind's own counter-attacks. National and international organizations came into being to use modern weapons against the locust scourge, but the desert locust remains an ever-present menace to an area that ranges from West to East Africa and up through Arabia and the Middle East to Central Asia.

With the weapons that proved successful against other species having little effect against the desert locust, a completely different approach was explored. The countries of the area became interested in the possibility of applying meteorological knowledge to locust control. It may be asked why weather information should be concerned with locusts. The reason is that the locust's life and movements are very largely determined by weather factors. Its breeding areas are controlled to a great extent by rainfall and temperature, while it is chiefly wind movements that appear to govern the migration of adult swarms. Within the last few years, a close association has been observed between locust movements and hour-to-hour changes in the winds. During the summer, much of the invasion area of the

desert locust is affected by what weather experts call the " Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone ". This is the region where the prevailing north-easterly and the prevailing south-easterly trade winds meet, and its location and character are constantly changing. The overall distribution of locust swarms has been found to correspond closely with the position of this Zone.

As the Zone moves southwards, the southerly locust migration from Somaliland and the arrival of the first swarms in Kenya, 500 miles away, each appear to take place within a day of the beginning of the monsoon in the areas successively concerned.

In 1953, the first meeting of the Regional Association for Africa of the World Meteorological Organization took place in Madagascar, a meeting at which this new approach to locust control was discussed. Since so many countries were involved, any plan would have to be on an international scale. And since the field was a truly pioneering one, it would have to begin with a detailed study of what was already known about tropical meteorology and of the techniques used by African and Asian weather services. The World Meteorological Organization was asked to supply the services of a highly qualified expert in tropical meteorology, who could lay the groundwork and start the plan going.

At the beginning of this year, Dr. E. B. Kraus of Australia arrived in East Africa to work with the Desert Locust Survey. In the RAF during World War II, Dr. Kraus had been in charge of weather reconnaissance flights: later he became Chief Meteorologist to Australia's Snowy River Project, studying rainfall and drought in connection with the harnessing of the river for irrigation and power protection. Dr. Kraus' technical assistance mission has taken him to many parts of the African Continent, to Pakistan and the Middle East. He will assemble the data that already exist on the nature and structure of the Convergence Zone, while he hopes to increase our scientific information about it.

The main problem in the control of the desert locust arises from its mobility. Swarms produced in Somaliland and Ethiopia in December, 1951 were already in Jordan, Iraq and Iran two months later. If locust control equipment is to be deployed effectively over such great distances, accurate forecasts of the swarm movements are essential. A closer study of the Convergence Zone and of wind movements in the affected region seems likely to make such forecasts possible. Dr. Kraus will also consider how far monsoon forecasting methods used in Pakistan and India could be extended to the East African-Arabian region, and he is giving thought to the statistical connections that may exist between rainfall in the tropics and antecedent weather conditions in other parts of the world.

Too little and too late . . . With little advance warning, these African farmers meet a swarm of invading locusts with poisoned bait.

In Pakistan, local people are learning to build and operate modern weather forecasting equipment with the aid of WMO Technical Assistance.

If the information gathered with WMO's help can lead to forecasts of the movement of particular swarms or groups of swarms days or hours ahead, mobile units could immediately go into action on the ground or in the air to destroy the invaders by spraying from motor vehicles or planes.

Should the desert locust be defeated as a result of international cooperation through technical assistance, many millions of people in Africa and Asia will no longer dread the black cloud which, for so many centuries, has brought ruin from the sky.

DEATH IN STILL WATERS

Most people would be hard put to it to name a dangerous disease which is transmitted to man by snails. Nevertheless, at least 150 million people in the warmer countries of the world are victims of such a disease. In Egypt, it is responsible for 20 per cent of all deaths and for an estimated annual loss of 80 million £Egyptian. The illness is usually caught in childhood or adolescence and it progressively undermines the physical and mental powers of the victim, until he or she becomes incapacitated or dies.

There is no known satisfactory cure for this disease. It is having a serious effect on food production in countries where under-nourishment is already widespread and it is hampering economic and social progress where both are urgently necessary.

This disease, which not everyone can identify, actually boasts two impressive-sounding names. It is called bilharziasis, after Theodor Bilharz, who first isolated the organism which causes it, and also schistosomiasis or " split body disease ", a reference to the structure of the organism. Medical men of many countries are working together to obtain certain information which they must have before we can hope to wipe out this scourge. The World Health Organization has been asked to cooperate in this campaign and to help in pooling the resources and knowledge of human science. On the island of Leyte in the Philippines, and near to Cairo, Egypt, centres for control of this disease have been set up with WHO assistance. Here, scientists from a number of nations are concentrating on an unusual and challenging problem—how can man conquer the inoffensive-looking snail?

Bilharziasis is spread by a minute worm, whose life cycle leads it, at different stages, through the body of a snail and through that of a human being or other mammal, such as a dog

or a water buffalo. This worm deposits its eggs in the veins of the human intestine, from which they are carried out of the body. When they reach water, the embryo emerges from the egg. For the next stage of its development, it penetrates into the body of a water-loving snail. Here it multiplies by budding and changes into a so-called *cercaria*, a microscopic organism with a split tail. Vast numbers of these minute creatures leave the host snail and swim about in the water, where they penetrate the skin of human beings or animals wading there. Thence they reach the blood stream and so come to the intestinal veins, where the circle is completed.

On the Island of Leyte, floodwaters heighten the danger of bilharziasis infection.

There is as yet no non-toxic, easily administered drug which can attack the worms in the human body. In attempting to control a communicable disease, one must aim at breaking the chain of transmission at its weakest point, and this would seem to be, in the case of bilharziasis, the snails. Either man must keep away from the water in which they live or the snails themselves must be destroyed.

In some areas, human beings cannot avoid daily contact with these waters. The Egyptian fellah must work in his irrigation canals, the Philippine farmer in his rice paddies. The Philippine child must often cross swampy ground on the way to school. As for the attempt to destroy snails by chemicals, this would be both expensive and damaging to the rice crop. In their efforts to find another way to conquer the disease, researchers are gathering a vast amount of information on the living habits and biology of snails. " We must learn to think like a snail," said the Head of the WHO team on Leyte.

Leyte was chosen as a centre for research because the area is infested with bilharziasis. On the western side of this Philippine island, the streams run down swiftly to the sea and there are few swamps and consequently no bilharziasis to speak of. On the eastern side the streams meander sluggishly through a broad plain, consisting largely of swamp and rice fields. Most of this area is covered with the lush grass and other vegetation beloved of the snails and, as a result, bilharziasis is rife there.

It is already known that cutting of the vegetation and rich grass, as well as ploughing of the rice fields, disturbs and tends to drive away the snails. The WHO team is working along these lines in cooperation with the efforts of the agriculturists to introduce better methods of rice cultivation. With thorough weeding and other techniques, unfamiliar in Leyte, the number of snails could be greatly reduced. However, tests at the Control Centre in Egypt have shown that only about three per cent of the snails are infected, so that a single infected snail must be responsible for vast numbers of the disease-bearing

cercariae. Grass cutting and weeding alone will therefore hardly do more than lessen the risk of infection. Primitive sanitation is another factor favouring the continuance of the disease. Better sanitary arrangements could do much to help in interrupting the life cycle of the organisms, since a really efficient system would prevent the minute eggs, when they leave the human body, from getting into the stagnant or still water where the snails abound.

The WHO team sent to Leyte truly combines worldwide scientific skill. It is headed by Dr. N. Farooq of India, and his colleagues are Dr. Nelson Hairston of the United States and Mr. J. Jauregui of Bolivia. The Director of the project is Dr. T. P. Pesignan of the Philippines. They are much impressed by the cooperation they receive from the Philippine country-dwellers. When they reach a village house, chairs are brought out and offers of help are made eagerly over glasses of the local palm wine. " If you need any reassurance as to how local and international personnel can work together towards a common aim, I can assure you that you will find an exhilarating and stimulating atmosphere in Leyte," said Dr. John Strahan, who is Public Health Administrator at WHO's Regional Office for

Dr. T. Pesignan, Director of the Philippine Bilharziasis-control Project, shows a tiny snail vector to the rice farmer whose land has been surveyed.

In Egypt, at the Control Centre, young children are checked for bilharziasis reaction.

the Western Pacific. " There you have a team of workers who dream and think of their work throughout 24 hours of the day."

In fact, the local population is following this work so keenly that some of the WHO team fear there will be disappointment when it is understood that success cannot come quickly. The position of these specialists in bilharziasis today is similar to that of the malariologist half a century ago. They do not yet know quite enough to be sure which way the remedy lies. The WHO experts are confident that their battle can be won, but they do not anticipate a lightning victory. Ironically enough, the campaign against the snail must proceed, for some time yet, at a snail's pace.

OPERATION CITRUS

" Yes . . . I've found it easy to teach the Libyans to help themselves." This was the admiring comment of a " foreigner " in a land where people are supposedly loath to change a way of life that has remained constant for 2,000 to 3,000 years.

From a desert coastline that stretches for 1,000 miles along the Central Mediterranean, Libya extends deep into the Sahara. The usable land is limited to a string of oases and to small districts near the sea. In Tripolitania, one of three subdivisions, most of the workable land and two-thirds of the population are concentrated. Here, one of the two capital cities and a series of smaller towns are strung out along the coast, nourished by rains which are absent further inland. About 600 miles south of Tripoli lies the vast rocky and sandy area of the Fezzan, with its agricultural population of 35,000 people, almost equally divided between three oases. And to the east, Cyrenaica, barren except for fertile fragments of land, and containing extensive forests—the only ones in Libya.

Some one million persons are struggling against the inroads of the great arid desert in this newly-independent State. The land provides a living for most of them. In the narrow coastal belt flanking the Mediterranean, olive trees, vines, fruits, grain and vegetables are grown. The population of the oases of the Fezzan grows dates, barley and some wheat.

Libya has eagerly sought advice from other countries on how her farmers might increase agricultural output, and so have enough to feed all her own people and to be able to sell some of her produce abroad. An international team from the Food and Agriculture Organization began in 1951 to help Libyan farmers to produce better-quality and higher-yielding crops.

Soon after, the Libyan Government asked FAO for another expert to be added to their team, a specialist in marketing, who

could advise their own exporters on how best to appeal to foreign tastes and standards. It might be said that the marketing specialist starts his activity where the work of his fellow experts ends, for marketing closes the productive cycle and opens a new one.

Dr. Edgar Rascovich, an Italian, came to Tripoli to join the 15-man FAO team. His knowledge of many Mediterranean languages, including Arabic, won him the confidence and understanding of the people. He had already done six years of work with the Italian Federation for the Export of Agricultural Products, as well as field work in Central Africa and in the Far East.

" Citrus fruits are a good starting point," Rascovich recommended to Libyan officials. The yearly fruit crop averaged 3,000 tons. The only outlets were Malta and Italy where the fruit of Tripolitania, exported ungraded and often in bulk, commanded very low prices. Even these markets were reaching the saturation point. And so, " Operation Citrus " was born.

Its purpose was to get Libyan fruit to European markets. This would have been impossible at the time of Rascovich's arrival because the grading was not standardized and the fruit was infested with the Mediterranean fruit fly and black scale. No European country, particularly one that grew citrus itself, would permit such fruit to be imported.

Training Libyan growers to safeguard their fruits against disease was not the job of the marketing expert. The FAO team included a Swiss plant protection expert who had long been organizing fights against these insect pests in southern France and French North Africa. He showed the farmers how to spray their trees, and persuaded them to set up an organization to carry out systematic spraying. His logic was simple. " The small amount of money that it will cost you to protect your crops will be regained many times over from the proceeds of sales abroad." They formed a cooperative which

With only a small percentage of her vast land suitable for agriculture, Libya is trying to get the most from it. Here, a group of workers conduct seed improvement experiments on a test plot of barley.

sent a team of seven around the countryside spraying orchards with the proper insecticides at the correct times for the different pests.

Rascovich, in the meantime, was busy drawing up the first code of technical standards for export, giving strict rules on selection of fruits, standardization, processing, packing and insect controls—rules that would have to be made compulsory before Libya could enter the European market. The expert recommended that these rules be enforced by a cooperative composed of the main producers, exporters and traders of fruits. With the enthusiastic support of the Government, the

cooperative was formed. They used a loan of £3,000, given collateral-free, to buy an up-to-date sorting, washing, drying, brushing, waxing and calibrating machine. They bought standard packing material and hired a chief packer from Sicily to train their own staff. They drew up plans for a modern vacuum disinfecting plant, to make sure that no diseased fruit would get through.

By the middle of 1955, Edgar Rascovich was able to call the results " almost dramatic ". In 1953–4, the first working season for the cooperative, the European market opened to Libyan surplus fruit, with the Italian Government permitting pest-free fruit to move through Italy for Northern European markets. A net profit of $60,000 was realized from the increase in their volume of exports. And a year later, for the 1954–5 fruit season, exports went up *ten times* more.

The profits from the sale of citrus fruits abroad are not heavy as world trading figures go, but Libya's achievement is nevertheless a great one. Markets are open that could not have been open before. Libyan produce is fetching better prices, even in Malta, where their sales are going up because of better quality. If fruit growers can increase their output with FAO help, it will now mean more export sales, rather than surplus fruit going to waste.

" Operation Citrus " has been followed by " Operation Zitun ", " Zitun " being the Arabic word for olive. Olive oil has hitherto been Libya's leading export product, but Dr. Rascovich is sure that a much bigger market awaits the product if it can be improved and its export properly organized. Though Libyan olives are of excellent quality, they are of a different kind from those of Northern Mediterranean countries, and they would have to be processed and blended to conform to the tastes of consumers.

The " zitun ", or olive, is in a way a symbol of Libya's struggle. A common sight in mountain areas of Tripolitania is the remains of Roman olive presses, a reminder that this North African region was once fertile and planted with great numbers

of olive trees. In fact, until the seventh century, Tripolitania was one of the world's main producers both of olive oil and of grain. There is ample historical evidence that in the past Libya was more heavily wooded, more fertile, more productive than it is today, capable not only of supporting its own population, but of producing an export surplus as well.

For various historical reasons, however, the olive terraces were not kept in repair. Erosion set in, the topsoil escaped and, with the gradual invasion of sand from the south, large areas of the formerly productive region became desert. The problem is not so much one of initiating growth, as of arresting decay, in a country which in modern times has never realized its potential.

The question has been asked, " Can people who have been retarded find the incentive for launching a new era of progress? " Can a country with a per capita income of $35 per year, an illiteracy rate of 85 per cent and a mortality rate of 300 out of 1,000 children achieve economic revival? Dr. Rascovich and his FAO colleagues, who have seen the eagerness of the Libyan people and their Government to help themselves, think that with international assistance they can.

With FAO guidance, small grass hedges are planted to fix the shifting sand dunes. This is part of the fight against the encroachment of the Libyan desert.

FORTY YEARS IN FIVE

To many of us the mention of Burma conjures up visions of pagodas and rubies and of elephants piling teak. " This is only part of the true picture of Burma," was Fred Tickner's comment when he returned recently from a United Nations technical assistance assignment to Rangoon. Tickner, a senior official of the Public Administration Division of United Nations, had visited Rangoon at the request of the Burmese Government.

The assignment began with an icy departure from his U.N. office in New York, followed by an even icier departure from his native London in a snowstorm. He reached Rangoon on a hot afternoon, so that he came straight from the northern winter to gardens in the full profusion of summer flowers. The warmth of his welcome made Burma cease to be a strange country.

The fusion of an ancient culture with a modern political system impressed him from the moment of his arrival. The officials at the airport had neat modern uniforms; the people who had come to meet their friends wore the traditional national dress. After customs and immigration formalities had been conducted in a thoroughly up-to-date manner, he was introduced to a Burmese family. All of them, including the father, wore the *longyi*, the long, brightly-patterned cotton skirt which is the fashion for both sexes. The father also had a loose short jacket and the characteristic Burmese cotton headdress, which is tied in a bow over the left ear. The womenfolk wore white nylon bodices with long sleeves. The material for these clothes was modern synthetic fabric, but they were cut in the traditional style. To emphasize the fact that they were sisters, the three daughters were dressed in *longyis* made of the same colourful material with a pattern of flowers.

This national costume is an expression of Burmese tradition,

just as the uniforms of the officials are an expression of the modern requirements of the State, and as Mr. Tickner applied himself to his mission, he found this marriage between tradition and innovation constantly in evidence.

In ancient times Burma was a kingdom with a long history and a rich national tradition of its own. From the beginning of the nineteenth century the British began to penetrate into Burma from India, and by 1885 the country had become a province of British India. In modern Burma the most important date to remember is January 4, 1948, the day on which the country became once again a sovereign independent State.

When Burma was a province of British India, the Burmese found themselves part of a much larger political unit to the west, although in religion and culture they are more closely related to their neighbours in South East Asia; this frequently operated to their disadvantage, but it did give them a pattern of administration, which they themselves still regard as a good one, and it determined the fact that their principal foreign language was to be English.

The system of public administration, which it was Mr. Tickner's task to study and help to improve, had once belonged to British India and it had survived the war, the Japanese occupation, the achievement of political independence and the serious domestic political troubles which at first beset the new State. There was no time to make changes while the new Government had to concentrate on the overriding problem of restoring law and order. As political stability grew, the Burmese embarked on a programme of social legislation, designed to achieve higher standards of social welfare, housing and public health. In this they have called freely on the United Nations for help. When it was time to look at the effect of all these changes, it became very clear that their form of administration needed, in some ways, to be modified to meet new requirements.

Mr. Tickner summed up his impressions by saying that Burma is trying to achieve in a little over five years what would normally take a country about 40 years to accomplish. The Government's social welfare programme alone is impressive and attempts something which in many countries took more than the whole period between the two world wars. At the same time, a new system of local government, based on democratic election of local councils, is being introduced. There is also an important scheme for agricultural development, a far-reaching policy of land nationalization, and encouragement of industrial and commercial development.

Any one of these would alone be a considerable achievement in any country. The Burmese are facing them simultaneously and with quiet courage in the infancy of their new independence, with relatively few experienced men available for senior positions, because independence caused a number of senior officials, Europeans, Indians and Burmans, to withdraw from the public service.

Burma, however, has great administrative assets. The Indian Civil Service in which many of its senior administrators began their careers, was organized on the principle that the young official served a rigorous apprenticeship in the districts, and so, when he reached a senior post, he had an intimate knowledge of the life of the people. The Burmese wisely proposed to maintain this system, modified to meet the proposed changes in local administration. It will ensure a steady flow of officials with experience in the districts to senior posts in the central departments. Cabinet Ministers are responsible to the Parliament, of which they are members, and they are advised by a civil service, which, even at the highest levels, is permanent in tenure of office and independent of politics. The most serious problem at the present time, the U.N. expert found, is fitting into this framework the growing number of professional and technical advisers, who are being appointed to carry out new tasks imposed by the social welfare and economic development programmes of the Government.

The growing importance of the technical expert in his country's affairs and the value of his contribution to its progress is a common phenomenon throughout the world. It is not always easy for him to find the place where he can offer advice to the best advantage. He may be impatient with officials brought up in an older tradition, and many countries are experiencing the difficulties of such a situation. The Burmese are looking for a way of getting the best of both worlds—the technical world and the world of general administration.

Fred Tickner found three major problems in the administration of the Burmese civil service: first, the need for better organization of Government offices; second, that for modernization of office routines; and third, a need to build up adequate training schemes for future Burmese officials.

For the past 12 years it has, for many reasons, been impossible to give proper training to new recruits, so that members of the public service now have to undertake more difficult tasks than their predecessors with less opportunity for adequate training. The U.N. expert and his official hosts, at a single meeting as a committee, worked out unanimous recommendations to meet the training problem. A department will be established within the civil service gradually to build up training schemes for every phase of administrative activity. A college for future higher officials will be opened in Rangoon, where the students can see Parliament in session and study processes of central government in active operation.

Mr. Tickner's report to the Government also included proposals for the development of an Institute of Public Administration, a suggestion which has met with an encouraging reception. As a first step in the development of advanced studies in administration, the University of Rangoon had initiated a course in Management and Administration, which began in June, 1955. This aroused such interest that the classes have had to be duplicated because of the unexpectedly large number of students.

The U.N. expert concentrated mainly on the improvement of central government. The Burmese themselves already have in hand plans for the development of local government. Although these plans were not yet in force, Mr. Tickner did have the opportunity of seeing the existing local government at work. He was invited to sit with a district official at Syriam, and to see a typical day's work in a local office. First of all, a group of village elders came to discuss a new irrigation scheme for their rice fields, and the imaginary diagrams which they drew with their fingers on the table more than made up for Mr. Tickner's inability to understand word for word. Later on another group came with a problem which might equally have occurred in the expert's own country: what did the village have to do to qualify for a Government grant for an improvement scheme? This was part of the master plan for agricultural development in Burma, brought down to practical problems of irrigation ditches, water supply and financial help from the Government.

" Burma is surely one of the most interesting and challenging countries in the world at the present time," is the impression that this U.N. expert took back with him. " When I return to my post at U.N. Headquarters," he assured his hosts, " you will have one more ambassador for Burma ".

A view of the Shwe Dagon Pagoda, Rangoon. In Burma the eagerness for development and progress blends with a reverence for ancient customs and traditions.

THE SCHOOL WITHOUT A BELL

A few minutes before nine every morning, dozens of little children dressed in the white smocks worn by schoolboys and schoolgirls alike in Bolivia, cluster around the doors of a new school in the Miraflores section of La Paz. If it were not for the spectacular backdrop of Mount Illimani and the sheer wall of the Andes, dwarfing even La Paz at its 12,000 feet altitude, the scene would be no different from the beginning of a schoolday anywhere else in Bolivia or in the world.

But, if you watch the Miraflores school long enough on any morning, you suddenly realize that there is a difference. This school has no bell. It has no bell because, ever since it was first opened in 1953, none has ever been needed. Getting its pupils off to school on time is no problem for their parents. The children go there by themselves.

The Miraflores school is a pilot school attached to Bolivia's higher Teacher Training Institute. Its methods are as new as its building, a spectacular structure on stilts offered to La Paz by the citizens of the Miraflores section as a gift to their city following the 400th anniversary of the founding of La Paz in 1548. It stands in a new quarter where only flimsy adobe huts existed fifteen years ago.

The building of the school coincided with the arrival of two men in Bolivia at the end of 1952, both educators working under UNESCO's technical assistance programme. One, Dr. Omar Albarracin, was the founder of an experimental school in Santiago, Chile. The other, Dr. Roberto Velasco Zapiain, had a long career behind him in Mexico's educational system.

They had come to a country with an area of 404,000 square miles and a population of only 3,100,000, a country where more than 70 per cent of the population was illiterate and, out of 600,000 school-age children, only 200,000 were in school.

The Miraflores school opened its doors in May 1953—the new building still awaited its finishing touches. It was staffed

by twelve teachers, all of whom had attended preparatory courses given by Bolivian educators and Drs. Albarracin and Velasco. One hundred and fifty children attended the first classes.

The first major hurdle came in November with end-of-year exams. The Miraflores youngsters had lost four months with their change of schools and methods and, yet, to the astonishment of their parents and their examiners, every one of them passed his finals. At the end of 1953, two hours after the school had begun new enrolments, the school was filled—this time with 350 pupils.

What had impressed the parents most of all was the progress that their children were making in learning how to read and write. As compared to four months or so required elsewhere to bring children to the point where they could actually read with understanding, the Miraflores school was able to show results in 48 days.

At the Miraflores School puppet shows become a way of stimulating interest in historical and literary subjects.

The key to the new methods introduced at Miraflores is illustrated by this comment of Dr. Velasco: " You know, there are many people in the world who can read and who cannot write—but I don't think that you'll find anyone who can write, but who cannot read ". In other words, writing should come before reading, according to the new theory.

Before children open their primers for the first time at Miraflores, the teacher, in the course of conversation, familiarizes them with the words they will have to handle later on. Then, they go on to exercises aimed at developing their co-ordination and making them feel at home on paper—lines, curves, squares, ovals and so on. Then they draw the five basic figures they will use later in letter-forming: a little wheel, a bow, a cane, an upside-down cane and a lasso. Making a lower-case " i ", for example, is only a matter of placing the bow and the upside-down cane side by side.

Once the children are familiar with these figures, the teacher writes a sentence on the blackboard: " Mi mama tiene un loro " (My mother has a parrot). Using this sentence, she picks out the letter " i " and explains to her pupils how it is formed. Then—and only then—does she tell them a story: the tale of a little rat who disobeyed his mother and had to be shut up in a cage. When the *ratita* was in his cage, he was very unhappy and he cried out " i-i-i-i-i " (in Spanish, " i " is pronounced as " ee " in English). The fact that the story comes only after the children are taught how to write the letter " i " is important.

The method of breaking down the structure of a letter, teaching children how to write it and then illustrating it onomatopoeically with a story is followed with the other vowels. Spanish is not like English where a vowel such as " u " can turn up in " under ", " united " and " thorough " to the despair of children and adults alike learning the language.

Improvement of reading and writing, however, is only one of four objectives set by Dr. Albarracin, Dr. Velasco and Bolivian educators. The others are the development of new techniques in the teaching of Spanish, mathematics, the natural sciences and the social sciences; the introduction of the so-

called " laboratory system " of teaching in the last three years of the primary course and, finally, the training of teachers in these new techniques by opening the doors of the pilot school to students from the Higher Teacher Training Institute.

At Miraflores, the child is free to study at his own pace (but with periodic strict controls). Films, books, posters and models are used extensively, but the teacher takes good care that his pupils exercise their minds—as well as their senses and their hands. The work itself is the main focus of interest.

During the first primary years, the emphasis is on teaching children how to learn. Then, from the fourth year on, they are turned loose with relative independence in " functional laboratories " for work in mathematics, grammar, social sciences and natural sciences. Pupils receive an assignment to finish by the end of the week and they are expected to work as much on their own as possible. Otherwise, the programme is the same as that of other public schools in Bolivia and the same textbooks are used.

There are now 240 teachers-in-training at Miraflores and they all have opportunities to watch the pilot school in action and to teach in its classes during their final year of work. In addition, during summer school holidays in November and December, courses are given for primary teachers in La Paz and in other parts of the country.

Miraflores' methods are beginning to spread. At the Escuela Villamil de Rada, a ten-minute walk from the pilot school, an experiment was begun in January 1954 to test its system of teaching reading and writing. Of three first-year classes, two began to learn to read and write under the new method and a third under the one previously used in the entire school.

Despite the fact that children in the two new classes came mainly from bi-lingual families speaking their Indian language, Aymara, at home, they learned to read and write during the first half of the school-year within a period of 50 to 60 days. The class working under the traditional method averaged 90

days, even though many of its pupils were repeaters who were already familiar with the work.

From the Miraflores Pilot School to the Escuela Villamil de Rada is only a few hundred yards, but the distance represents the gulf between the typical school of Latin-America and the model conditions of Bolivia's pilot school. It is much too soon to draw any conclusions—teachers always tell you that they need a generation before they can show any positive results—but it appears to a good many educators and parents in La Paz, Bolivia, that this gulf can be bridged.

At Miraflores, the emphasis of the formative years is on teaching the child how to learn. *The school works on the premise that "a child's interest in learning is natural."*

A SPAN OF AIRWAVES

The sovereign State of Pakistan that emerged out of partition at the end of the Second World War consisted of two separate parts or wings, with nearly 1,500 miles stretching between them.

The population of Karachi, the capital of West Pakistan, had grown from 300,000 to well over a million people between 1947 and 1951. At the same time, Dacca, capital of the Eastern wing, grew from 70,000 to 500,000 people. This population had been swollen by thousands of new immigrants who had uprooted themselves and crossed the frontier to live in the new State, and whose most urgent need, after food and shelter, was communication with other members of families and communities which had become dispersed.

The problem of telephone, cable and radio communications which Pakistan faced in its first years of existence was staggering. Its system was grossly overcrowded. Radio and line networks had to be increased many times over, and those already in use had to be modernized. Links had to be provided (for police purposes, to take one example), where none had existed before. To add to the problem, at the time of partition practically all of the skilled technicians, as well as the equipment, remained with India.

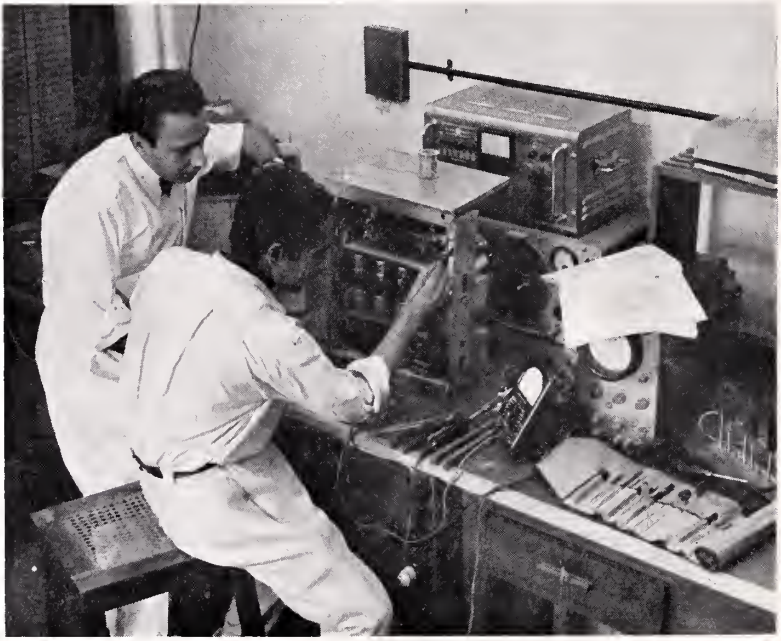
By the end of 1951, technical assistance experts from the International Telecommunications Union were working in Pakistan on a plan to modernize the entire system. H. A. Phillips of the United Kingdom set to work on a study of cable lines, analyzing their traffic load and planning faster and more efficient trunk circuits at less cost to the country. Louis Guibert of France was concerned with the planning and improvement of long distance telephone and telegraph overhead lines, a difficult problem to solve in rocky or desert regions.

Another expert, Santiago Quijano-Caballero, is specialized in radio communications. Trained in this field of work in Berlin's Technical University, Mr. Quijano returned to his native Colombia to help in modernizing that country's broadcasting system. In Pakistan he found that radio contacts were

the most vital problem in the country's communications picture, for a complete system had to be produced. Apart from two main circuits between Karachi (West) and Dacca (East), Pakistan was without a long-distance radio linkage.

By the time his two colleagues had finished their assignments at the end of 1953, Mr. Quijano had drawn up a general plan for radio communications between cities and towns, between the Eastern and Western wings, between ship-and-shore, and between Pakistan and other countries. He has remained, and is remaining, in the country to see the plan put into action, looking after the details of setting up stations, and helping to train people who will staff these stations. Mr. Quijano's plan called for four main radio traffic centres, each having a receiving and transmitting station. They would be in Karachi, Rawalpindi, Dacca and Chittagong. The Karachi Centre is

Mr. Quijano-Caballero, the ITU expert, watches the progress of a Pakistani technician at the radio maintenance laboratory he has helped to set up.



the most important, for it will be the international link. During 1954 and early 1955, Mr. Quijano helped in the selection of sites for the stations and supervised their construction. They are now at the stage where equipment can be installed, equipment that has in large part come from Australia under the Colombo plan.

Ship-to-shore radio has been brought up-to-date with the modernizing of two coastal stations at Karachi and Chittagong. Obsolete transmitters have been replaced by new equipment—to give better service to all the countries which use Pakistan's waterways.

Various points in East Pakistan which are separated by large rivers are being connected by a system of micro-wave radio relay links. Radio links were suggested because the rivers change their course continually during the monsoon period, making communication by means of overhead wire or cable lines difficult, if not impossible, to maintain.

Even as Mr. Quijano works with Pakistan authorities to improve their radio system, the population, trade and travel are growing and putting more of a strain on communications. Only by training Pakistani technicians in large numbers can the authorities eventually catch up with the traffic. An experimental laboratory is now the focus of this training plan. Stocked with modern radio equipment, some of it supplied by the United Nations, it gives young Pakistanis a chance to become familiar with installation and maintenance problems.

West Pakistan is mid-way on the air and sea routes between Europe and the Far East, a natural link in world communications. This international role could be fulfilled in part if the country were to become an important telecommunications relay point, which would also have the advantage of bringing tangible returns in foreign exchange. With better radio communications, Pakistan has already begun to draw closer together her own geographically separated people. In future years, she may have a valuable part to play in helping the peoples of the two most populous continents—Asia and Europe—to communicate with one another.

THE NEW DIMENSION OF FLIGHT

Geography is often to blame for many of the obstacles encountered by a nation setting out to climb the ladder of economic development. Speedy communications between the various parts of the country may be hindered by the barriers of mountain and desert, of river and ocean. The building of roads and railroads across sparsely inhabited territory can be both expensive and time-consuming. Ethiopia is a good example of a country in this position, and it is not surprising that her government has turned to the International Civil Aviation Organization for technical assistance to build up a national aviation service as a common carrier of peoples and goods over these natural obstacles.

The most productive and most populated part of Ethiopia is located on the high and broken plateau. Before the invention of aircraft, it was virtually isolated from the outside world. Any security from invasion which the Ethiopian people may have felt on this account was rudely shattered by Mussolini's bombers and, since the Second World War, steps have been taken to develop an air transport system which will both knit the country closer together and bring it in touch with the rest of the world.

Internally, air travel is especially valuable to Ethiopia because there is only one railway and the maintenance of even a limited number of roads over rough country has proved very difficult. The rivers of Ethiopia are not generally navigable. At the same time, many fertile and otherwise productive areas lie far from the capital city and the seaports. It has been estimated that nearly a third of the land in Ethiopia is potentially productive but unused.

With the help of an ICAO Technical Assistance Mission, Ethiopia is already beginning to benefit in many ways from the aeroplane. Aviation will greatly facilitate the surveys and

map-making which are essential preliminaries to economic development and it will also ease the task of national administration in a country where many of the people live in areas difficult of access. It will bring outlying regions nearer to the capital and will make contact with foreign markets much easier.

Ethiopia's farmers will certainly welcome the use of planes against the locust swarms which are a constant menace in all parts of the country. In some places besides helping in the campaign against the locust, aircraft have improved or actually re-established pastures by spraying fertilizers from the air.

The visitor to Addis Ababa now requires only about seven hours to get there by plane from Cairo, whereas until recently he had to spend eight or ten days travelling by rail and by sea, usually under conditions of extreme heat. Both external and internal travel have expanded rapidly and many businessmen and technical experts who might never have undertaken the more difficult surface journey have gone to Ethiopia by air. The saving in transit time for mail and valuable freight is another important factor in economic development.

A traveller landing at Addis Ababa's airport gets the best view of what ICAO's technical assistance experts have done to aid in the development of Ethiopia. Here is an aerodrome equipped with modern traffic control services and radio aids; it is run by competent people, many of whom were trained by the ICAO mission, and, day after day, aircraft from many parts of Ethiopia and from many foreign lands arrive and take off regularly and safely, carrying passengers and commerce quickly and with reasonable economy.

The ICAO mission, headed by Canadian Stuart Graham and including experts from Denmark, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom, is primarily concerned with training the Ethiopians who will eventually run all the technical and administrative services which a modern, safe and efficient aviation system requires. The first job of the mission, therefore,

was to set up a civil aviation school designed to produce the many experts and technicians needed in Ethiopia.

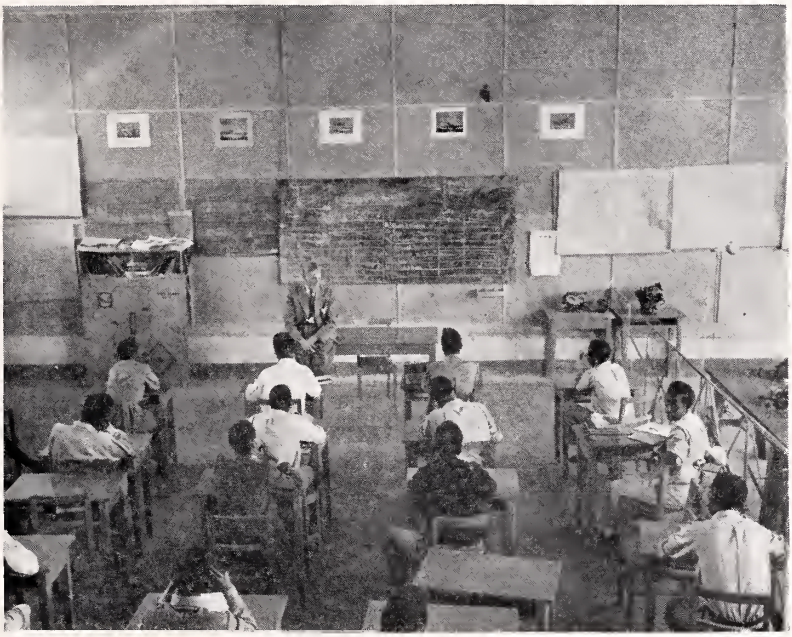
The aim of this school has been to give the Ethiopian students a solid grounding in the subject, rather than to teach them to perform their various duties by rule of thumb. This method involves rather long courses, because time has to be devoted to filling certain gaps in the education of the students. In less than four years the school has graduated 154 pupils as aircraft mechanics, radio mechanics, radio operators, air traffic

Improvising with materials at hand, one of the young ICAO-trained Ethiopian technicians takes barometer and psychrometer readings at the meteorology station at Gore.

controllers, weather observers or forecasters. Graduates from the school are already at work in the various government services. Mechanics have been engaged by Ethiopian Airlines and are now gaining the practical experience they need before becoming fully licensed aircraft mechanics. On 30th June, 1955 there were 56 pupils undergoing training at the school.

The weather service which has been established with the help of ICAO will be of value in many fields besides aviation. A dozen observing stations have been opened since the beginning of ICAO's mission, staffed mainly with graduates from the ICAO school. Fed by reports from this network of observing stations, the central office at Addis Ababa is now playing its part in the world-wide exchange of weather information in addition to issuing regular nation-wide and regional forecasts.

A member of the ICAO mission lectures on aircraft maintenance to Ethiopian students.



Meteorological work depends upon international cooperation, and a State benefits at the same time as it supplies meteorological data to others.

Every State which maintains civil aviation services must also maintain a continuing training programme, partly to allow for turnover in its services and partly to enable staff to be given instruction in new techniques and in the use of new equipment. An encouraging start has been made in setting up this programme. Proof of the adequacy of the training is seen in the employment of graduates from the school by Ethiopian Airlines and the Government, and the acceptance of others for advanced study abroad.

Under the ICAO fellowship programme five Ethiopian pilots were sent for advanced training in the United Kingdom. One Ethiopian official who took a fellowship returned to become Chief of Air Traffic Services in the Department of Civil Aviation at Addis Ababa.

There seems no doubt that the aeroplane will be an important factor in Ethiopia's programme of economic and social development for the benefit of the Ethiopian people. Her request to ICAO for technical assistance has given that country the beginnings of an aviation service which it will be for Ethiopia herself to develop over the coming years.

A CONTINUING NEED . . .

If there is a common theme running through these pages, it is one of hope. There is also cause for satisfaction that a start has already been made with the help of the UN and its Agencies. Libya now has a thriving cooperative to market her fruit in Europe; Bolivia's new school is setting the stage for a national drive against illiteracy; the people in Santa Apolonia have access at last to water; Ethiopians are building a national aviation system after centuries of isolation. Add to this the millions of lives that have been protected from malaria, the improvements in industrial techniques that already mean more income for more people, and the steady advances in transportation and communications. The part that international technical assistance has played in helping to bring this about has won for it the confidence of Governments and the faith of their people.

Nevertheless, in assessing the work of five years, achievement should not, and cannot, become the dominating theme. Each of the undertakings which have been described, and hundreds like them, are far from over. National and international problems that call for technical assistance are on a vast, even an alarming, scale. They will take years, they may take decades, to work out satisfactorily. And, in the long run, the solutions will depend on the efforts of the people themselves. Many countries are now engaged in far-reaching development schemes of their own, but where technical assistance is applied properly, the process may be shortened in innumerable ways.

The Expanded Programme, as it operates from day-to-day, may not always appear spectacular in the headline sense, but its significance is great in the long-range development of more than half of the world's people.

SCOPE OF THE EXPANDED PROGRAMME

During 1954, the last full year of the Expanded Programme's operations, the voluntary contributions of 74 different Governments enabled the UN and the Specialized Agencies to send 1,584 experts into the field and to award 1,524 fellowships to nationals of less-developed countries for study abroad. In all, over 6,000 experts have been on mission and over 7,000 fellows trained since mid-1950. No line has been drawn between " recipient " and " donor " countries, for in 1954 alone 20 per cent of all experts sent out actually came from countries which are themselves receiving Expanded Programme assistance in other fields.

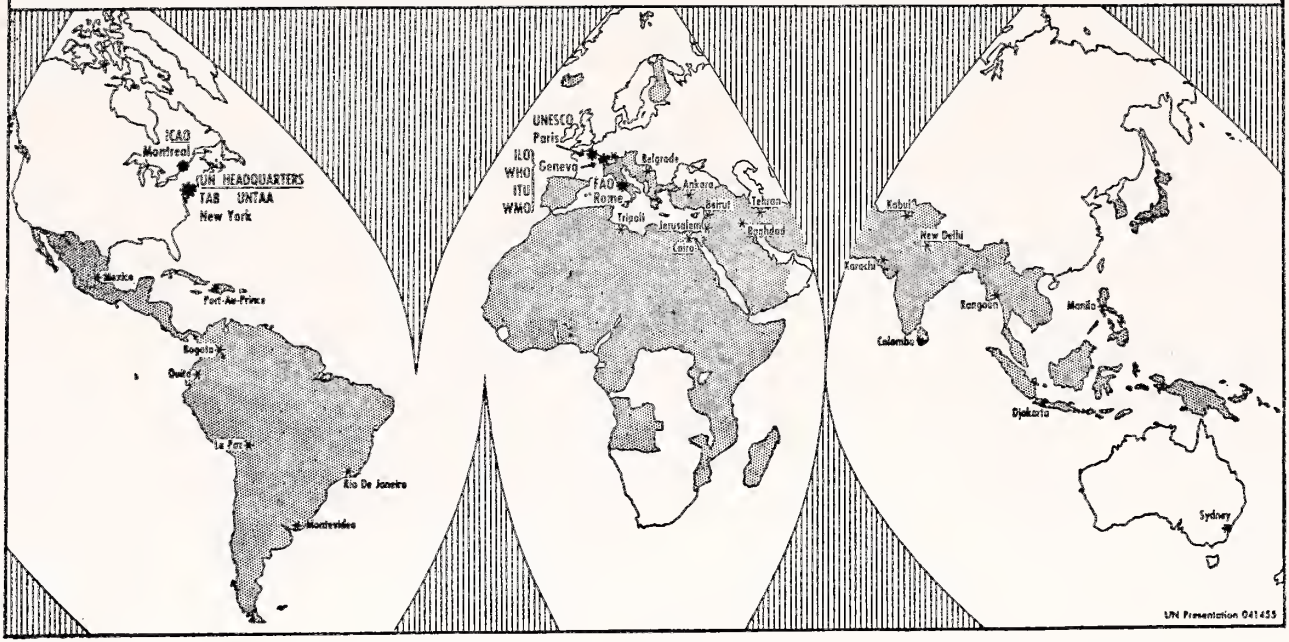
The geographical scope and the diversity of the Programme during 1954, as in past years, is shown in the following series of maps. They have been taken from the Seventh Annual Report of the Technical Assistance Board.

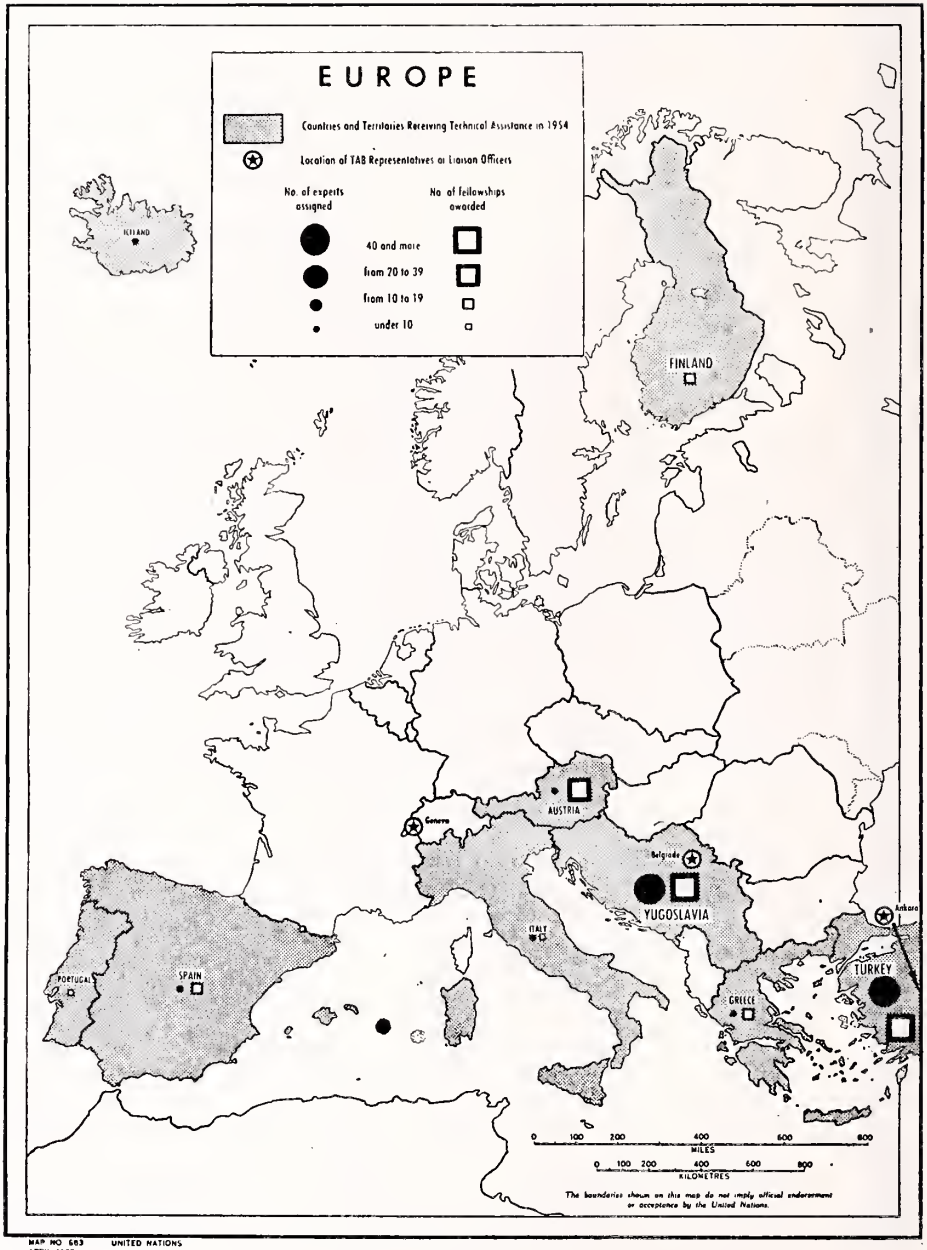
GLOBAL SCOPE OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

COUNTRIES AND TERRITORIES RECEIVING ASSISTANCE IN 1954

* HEADQUARTERS OF THE PARTICIPATING ORGANIZATIONS
UNTAA: United Nations Technical Assistance Administration
ILO: International Labour Organisation
FAO: Food and Agriculture Organization
UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
ICAO: International Civil Aviation Organization
WHO: World Health Organization
ITU: International Telecommunication Union
WMO: World Meteorological Organization

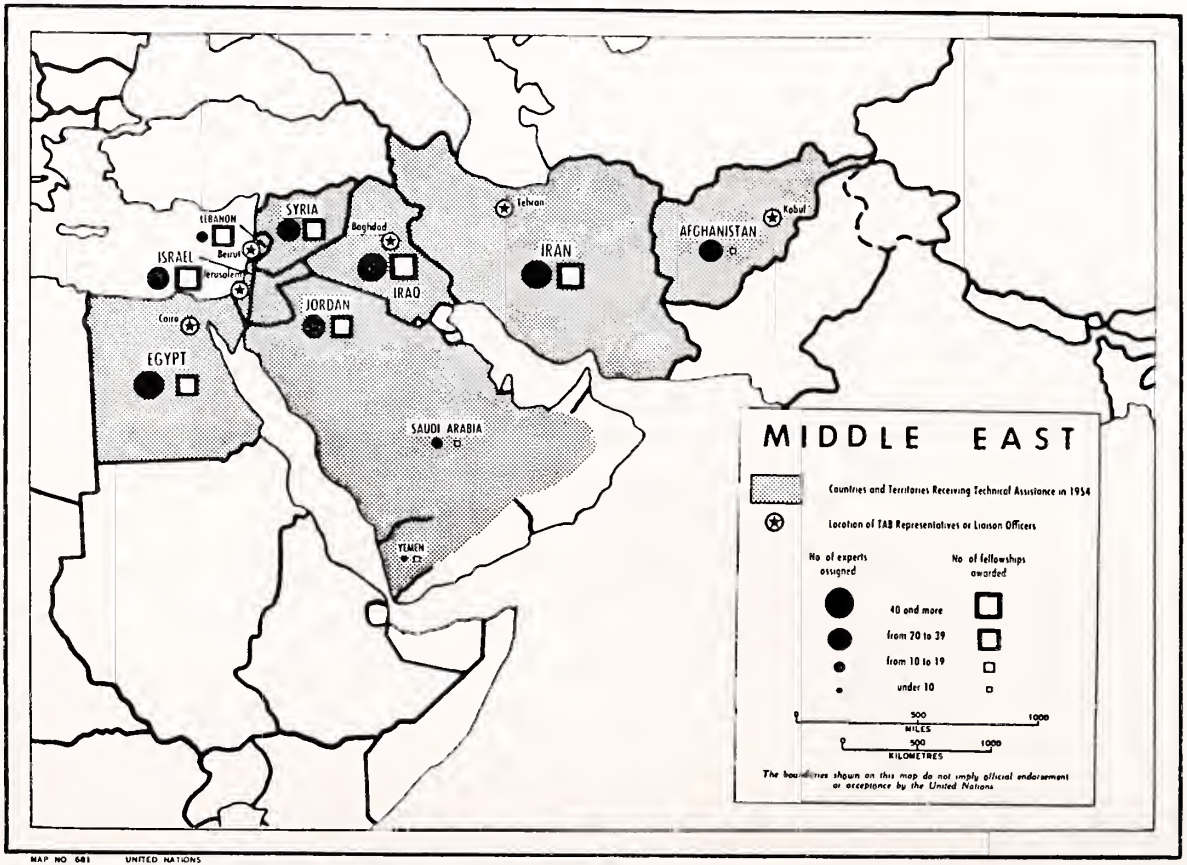
* OFFICES OF TAB REPRESENTATIVES AND LIAISON OFFICERS





MAP NO 663 UNITED NATIONS
APRIL 1955

MAP NO 685 UNITED NATIONS
APRIL 1959



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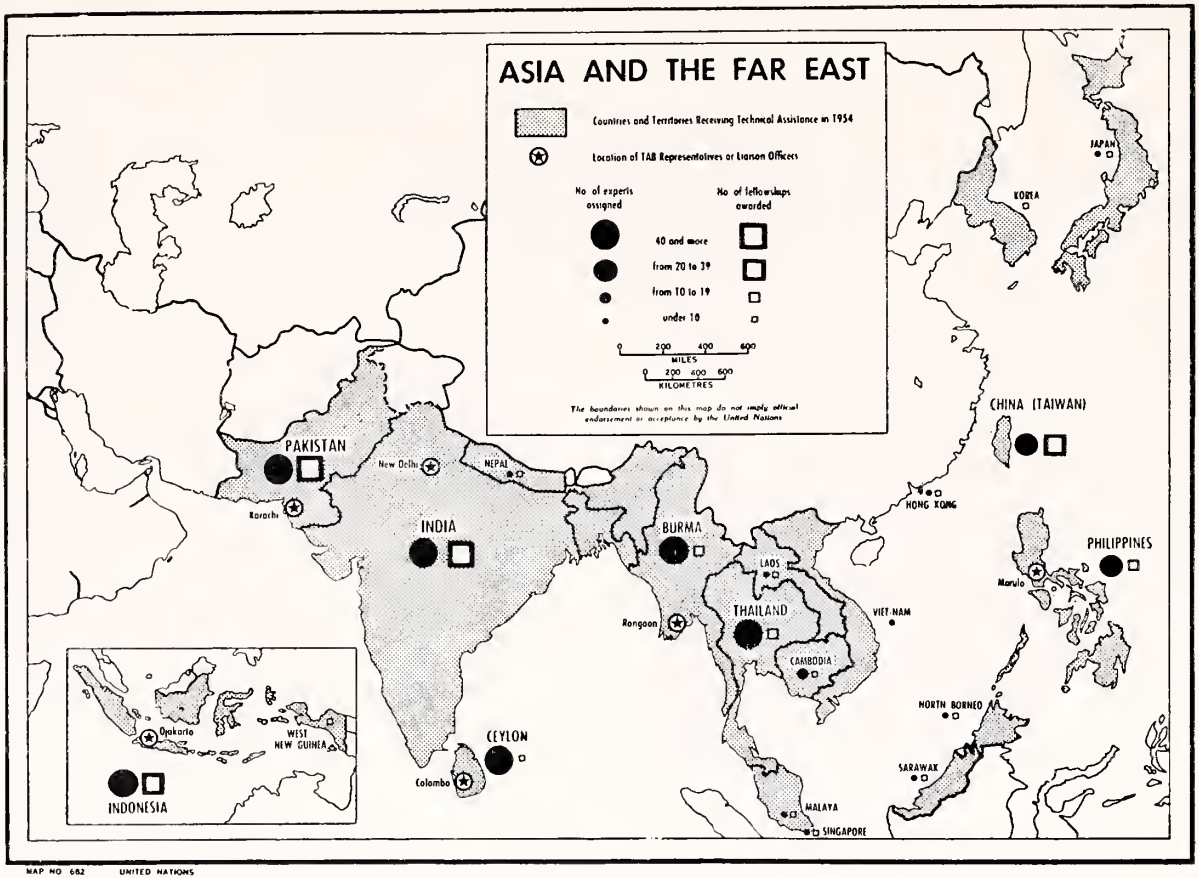

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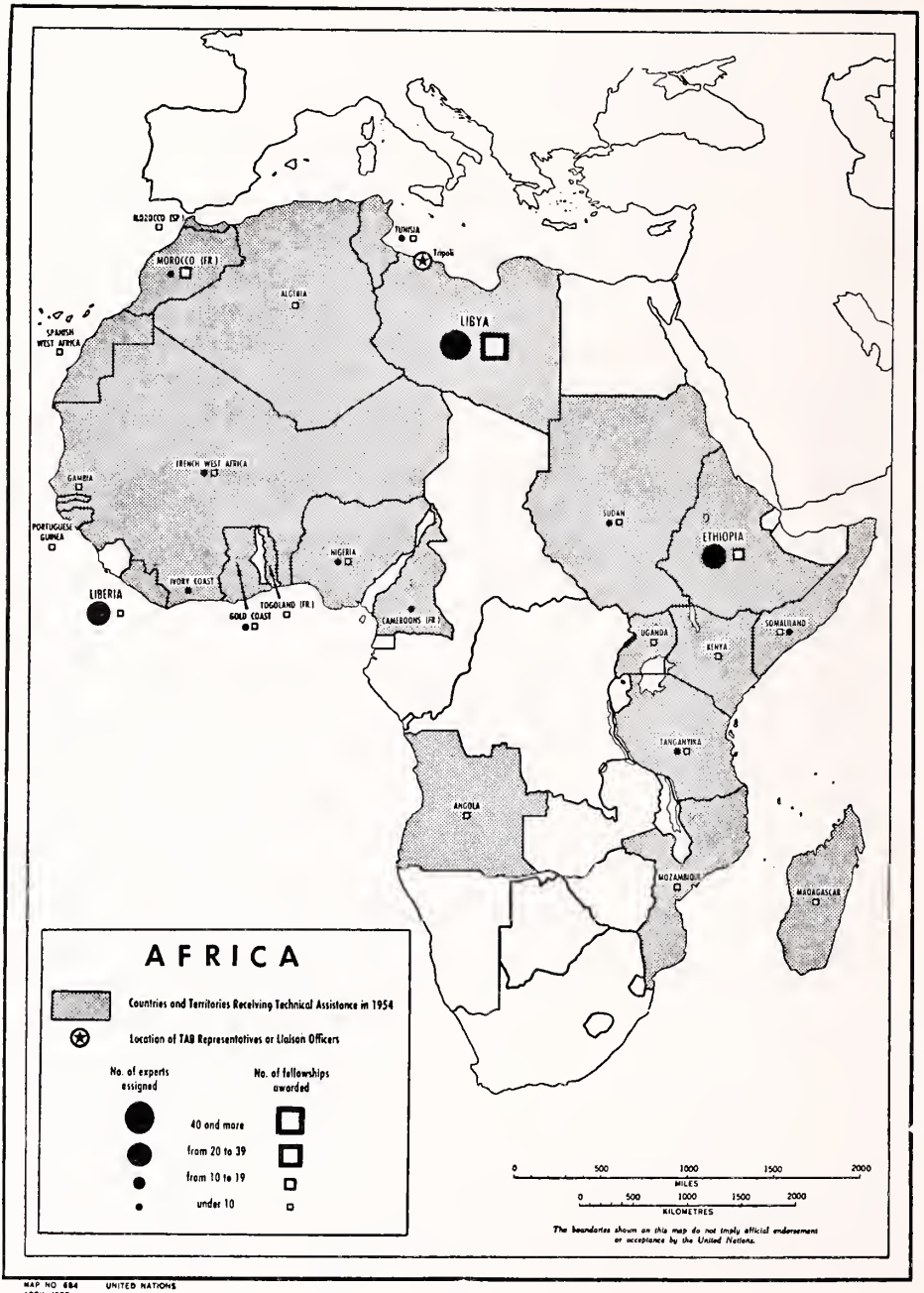

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